

# How Parkinson's disease may be similar to Diabetes in terms of spread and transmission

Shefali Modi \*

DPS RK Puram, Delhi, India.

World Journal of Biology Pharmacy and Health Sciences, 2024, 19(03), 522–538

Publication history: Received on 24 July 2024; revised on 19 September 2024; accepted on 22 September 2024

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/wjbphs.2024.19.3.0592>

## Abstract

Parkinson's disease (PD) and diabetes mellitus (DM) are both chronic, progressive diseases that have significant impacts on global health. Although they manifest differently—Parkinson's as a neurodegenerative disorder and diabetes as a metabolic disorder—emerging research suggests that there might be parallels between the two in terms of their underlying mechanisms, potential for spread within the body, and possibly even their transmission across individuals. This report delves into the similarities and differences between Parkinson's disease and diabetes with a focus on their potential for spread and transmission.

**Keywords:** Parkinson's Disease; Diabetes; Prion-Like behavior of Alpha-Synuclein; Metabolic Dysregulation; Gut-Brain Axis

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Background on Parkinson's Disease (PD)

#### 1.1.1. Overview of PD: Symptoms, Pathology, and Epidemiology

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder primarily characterized by motor symptoms such as bradykinesia (slowness of movement), resting tremors, rigidity, and postural instability. These symptoms arise due to the loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra, a region of the midbrain that plays a crucial role in movement control. As the disease progresses, non-motor symptoms such as cognitive impairment, mood disorders, autonomic dysfunction, and sleep disturbances also become prominent, significantly impacting the quality of life of affected individuals (Kalia & Lang, 2015).

Pathologically, Parkinson's disease is marked by the presence of Lewy bodies, which are intracellular inclusions composed primarily of aggregated alpha-synuclein protein. These aggregates are found not only in the substantia nigra but also in other regions of the brain, and even in peripheral tissues such as the gastrointestinal tract (Braak et al., 2003). Epidemiologically, PD is the second most common neurodegenerative disease after Alzheimer's disease, affecting approximately 1% of individuals over the age of 60. The incidence of Parkinson's disease increases with age, and it is more common in men than in women (Poewe et al., 2017).

#### 1.1.2. Historical Perspective and Significance

Parkinson's disease was first described in 1817 by the British physician James Parkinson in his seminal work "An Essay on the Shaking Palsy." Parkinson described the major symptoms of the disease and laid the groundwork for future research. It wasn't until the early 20th century that the role of dopamine in the brain and its connection to Parkinson's

\* Corresponding author: Shefali Modi; Email: [shefalimodi24@gmail.com](mailto:shefalimodi24@gmail.com)

disease was discovered, leading to the development of dopamine replacement therapies such as Levodopa, which remains a cornerstone of PD treatment today (Lees, Hardy, & Revesz, 2009).

The significance of Parkinson's disease lies not only in its prevalence but also in its impact on individuals, families, and healthcare systems. As the global population ages, the prevalence of Parkinson's disease is expected to rise, presenting significant challenges for healthcare providers and policymakers. Ongoing research aims to uncover the underlying mechanisms of the disease, develop more effective treatments, and ultimately find a cure.

## **1.2. Background on Diabetes Mellitus (DM)**

### *1.2.1. Overview of DM: Types, Symptoms, Pathology, and Epidemiology*

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a group of metabolic disorders characterized by chronic hyperglycemia due to defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both. The two most common forms of diabetes are Type 1 diabetes (T1D) and Type 2 diabetes (T2D). Type 1 diabetes is an autoimmune condition in which the body's immune system attacks and destroys the insulin-producing beta cells in the pancreas, leading to absolute insulin deficiency. It typically manifests in childhood or adolescence but can occur at any age. Type 2 diabetes, on the other hand, is characterized by insulin resistance and relative insulin deficiency. It is strongly associated with obesity and typically occurs in adults, although its prevalence in younger populations is increasing due to rising obesity rates (Skyler et al., 2017).

The symptoms of diabetes include polyuria (frequent urination), polydipsia (increased thirst), polyphagia (increased hunger), and unexplained weight loss. Long-term complications of diabetes include cardiovascular disease, neuropathy, retinopathy, nephropathy, and an increased risk of infections. Diabetes is a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, with over 400 million people affected globally. The incidence of diabetes is increasing rapidly, driven by factors such as aging populations, urbanization, and lifestyle changes (Zimmet, Magliano, Herman, & Shaw, 2014).

### *1.2.2. Historical Perspective and Significance*

Diabetes mellitus has been recognized for thousands of years, with descriptions of the disease dating back to ancient Egypt and India. The term "diabetes" was first coined by the Greek physician Aretaeus of Cappadocia in the 2nd century AD, while the term "mellitus" (meaning "honey-sweet") was added by Thomas Willis in the 17th century to describe the sweet-tasting urine of diabetic patients. The discovery of insulin in 1921 by Frederick Banting and Charles Best revolutionized the treatment of diabetes, transforming it from a fatal disease to a manageable chronic condition (Bliss, 1982).

The significance of diabetes lies in its widespread prevalence and the burden it places on individuals and healthcare systems. Diabetes is associated with significant healthcare costs due to its chronic nature and the management of its complications. Additionally, the increasing prevalence of diabetes, particularly Type 2 diabetes, poses a significant public health challenge. Research efforts are focused on understanding the pathophysiology of diabetes, developing new treatments, and finding ways to prevent the disease, particularly in high-risk populations.

## **1.3. Rationale for Comparing PD and DM**

### *1.3.1. Commonalities in Chronic, Progressive Nature*

Both Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus are chronic, progressive diseases that significantly impact the lives of those affected. Despite differences in their primary systems of impact—Parkinson's disease primarily affects the nervous system, while diabetes mellitus affects the endocrine system—both conditions share several commonalities. They are both characterized by a gradual onset of symptoms that worsen over time, leading to increasing disability and a greater need for medical intervention. Moreover, both diseases are associated with significant comorbidities and complications that can further complicate their management and worsen the prognosis.

In addition to their progressive nature, both Parkinson's disease and diabetes are influenced by a combination of genetic and environmental factors. For example, while specific genetic mutations are known to increase the risk of Parkinson's disease, environmental factors such as exposure to toxins and lifestyle choices also play a role in disease development. Similarly, while genetics play a significant role in the risk of developing Type 2 diabetes, factors such as diet, physical activity, and obesity are also critical determinants of disease onset and progression (Winklhofer & Haass, 2010; DeFronzo et al., 2015).

Overview of Research Suggesting Similarities in Disease Spread and Potential Transmission Mechanisms  
Recent research has begun to explore the possibility that Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus may share

similarities in their mechanisms of spread and transmission within the body. For instance, the prion-like behavior of alpha-synuclein, a protein implicated in Parkinson's disease, has led to hypotheses that the disease may propagate through the nervous system in a manner similar to prion diseases, potentially starting in peripheral tissues such as the gut and spreading to the brain via neural pathways (Braak et al., 2003; Brundin, Melki, & Kopito, 2010).

Similarly, in diabetes, the concept of metabolic dysregulation spreading from one tissue to another, leading to systemic effects, has been well documented. For example, insulin resistance in muscle and adipose tissue can lead to compensatory mechanisms that eventually result in beta-cell dysfunction and hyperglycemia (DeFronzo et al., 2015). Additionally, the idea of "social transmission" of diabetes risk factors, where shared environmental and lifestyle factors contribute to the spread of the disease within populations, has also gained attention (Hu et al., 2001).

These parallels have led researchers to investigate whether common pathways, such as inflammation, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction, might underlie both diseases, and whether insights from one disease could inform the understanding and treatment of the other. The exploration of these similarities could have significant implications for the development of new therapeutic strategies and preventative measures for both Parkinson's disease and diabetes.

---

## 2. Mechanisms of Disease Spread within the Body

### 2.1. Parkinson's Disease: Neurodegeneration and Alpha-Synuclein Propagation

#### 2.1.1. The Role of Alpha-Synuclein in PD

Parkinson's disease (PD) is fundamentally linked to the pathological aggregation of alpha-synuclein, a protein predominantly expressed in the brain, specifically within presynaptic terminals. Alpha-synuclein is involved in synaptic vesicle trafficking and neurotransmitter release, but its abnormal accumulation leads to the formation of Lewy bodies, which are intracellular protein aggregates that are a hallmark of PD (Spillantini et al., 1998). The misfolding and aggregation of alpha-synuclein are thought to be central to the neurodegenerative process in Parkinson's disease, contributing to the loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra, a key region involved in motor control (Dauer & Przedborski, 2003).

#### 2.1.2. Prion-like Behavior of Alpha-Synuclein

Recent research suggests that alpha-synuclein may behave in a prion-like manner, meaning that it can propagate from one neuron to another, causing the spread of pathology across the brain. This prion-like behavior involves the misfolded form of alpha-synuclein acting as a template that induces the misfolding of normal alpha-synuclein in neighboring cells, thereby spreading the disease process (Brundin et al., 2010). This hypothesis is supported by studies showing that the injection of misfolded alpha-synuclein into the brains of healthy animals can lead to the development of Parkinson-like symptoms and pathology, suggesting that alpha-synuclein can spread in a manner similar to infectious prions (Luk et al., 2012).

#### 2.1.3. Braak's Hypothesis: Gut-Brain Axis and Olfactory Pathways

Braak's hypothesis posits that Parkinson's disease may originate in the peripheral nervous system, specifically in the gastrointestinal tract or olfactory pathways, before spreading to the brain. According to this hypothesis, environmental factors such as exposure to toxins or pathogens could trigger the misfolding of alpha-synuclein in the enteric nervous system (ENS) or olfactory bulb. The misfolded alpha-synuclein could then propagate through the vagus nerve to the brainstem and eventually reach the substantia nigra, leading to the classic motor symptoms of Parkinson's disease (Braak et al., 2003). This theory is supported by epidemiological studies showing that early non-motor symptoms of PD, such as constipation and loss of smell, often precede motor symptoms by several years, suggesting a peripheral origin of the disease (Hawkes, Del Tredici, & Braak, 2007).

#### 2.1.4. Evidence from Experimental Studies

Experimental studies have provided evidence supporting the prion-like spread of alpha-synuclein and Braak's hypothesis. For example, animal studies have shown that alpha-synuclein pathology can be transmitted from the gut to the brain via the vagus nerve, and that truncal vagotomy (surgical removal of the vagus nerve) can delay or prevent the development of Parkinson-like pathology in these models (Holmqvist et al., 2014). Additionally, studies have demonstrated that the injection of alpha-synuclein aggregates into the olfactory bulb of rodents leads to the spread of pathology to interconnected brain regions, further supporting the idea that PD may spread along defined neural pathways (Rey et al., 2016).

## **2.2. Diabetes Mellitus: Metabolic Dysregulation and Systemic Impact**

### *2.2.1. Insulin Resistance and Pancreatic Beta-Cell Dysfunction*

Diabetes mellitus, particularly Type 2 diabetes (T2D), is characterized by insulin resistance and pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction. Insulin resistance occurs when the body's cells become less responsive to the effects of insulin, a hormone that regulates blood glucose levels. To compensate, the pancreas initially increases insulin production, but over time, the beta cells become dysfunctional and fail to produce enough insulin to maintain normal glucose levels, leading to hyperglycemia (Kahn, Cooper, & Del Prato, 2014). This progressive decline in beta-cell function is a key feature of diabetes and contributes to the chronic nature of the disease.

### *2.2.2. Spread of Metabolic Dysregulation Across Tissues*

The metabolic dysregulation in diabetes is not confined to the pancreas; it affects multiple tissues and organs throughout the body. For example, insulin resistance in muscle and adipose tissue leads to impaired glucose uptake and increased lipolysis, respectively, contributing to hyperglycemia and elevated levels of free fatty acids. In the liver, insulin resistance results in increased gluconeogenesis and reduced glycogen synthesis, further exacerbating hyperglycemia (DeFronzo, 2009). The systemic impact of metabolic dysregulation in diabetes also extends to the cardiovascular system, where insulin resistance and hyperglycemia contribute to endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis, and increased cardiovascular risk (Semenkovich, 2006).

### *2.2.3. Chronic Complications: Neuropathy, Retinopathy, Nephropathy*

The chronic complications of diabetes, such as neuropathy, retinopathy, and nephropathy, are the result of long-term exposure to hyperglycemia and other metabolic abnormalities. Diabetic neuropathy, a leading cause of morbidity in diabetes, results from damage to peripheral nerves due to hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress, advanced glycation end-products (AGEs), and impaired blood flow (Vinik et al., 2013). Diabetic retinopathy, the leading cause of blindness in working-age adults, occurs due to hyperglycemia-induced damage to the retinal blood vessels, leading to microaneurysms, hemorrhages, and, ultimately, vision loss (Antonetti, Klein, & Gardner, 2012). Diabetic nephropathy, a leading cause of end-stage renal disease, is characterized by glomerular hyperfiltration, proteinuria, and progressive loss of kidney function, driven by hyperglycemia, hypertension, and dyslipidemia (Tuttle et al., 2014).

## **2.3. Comparative Analysis: Mechanisms of Spread**

### *2.3.1. Similarities in Progressive Nature*

Both Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus are progressive disorders that worsen over time, leading to increasing disability and complications. In PD, the progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons leads to worsening motor and non-motor symptoms, while in diabetes, the progressive decline in beta-cell function and the spread of insulin resistance result in worsening glycemic control and the development of chronic complications. In both diseases, the progression is driven by underlying pathological processes that spread from one region or tissue to another, contributing to the systemic nature of the disease.

### *2.3.2. Role of Inflammation and Oxidative Stress*

Inflammation and oxidative stress are common pathological mechanisms that play a central role in the progression of both Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus. In PD, neuroinflammation driven by activated microglia and astrocytes contributes to the ongoing loss of dopaminergic neurons, while oxidative stress resulting from mitochondrial dysfunction and alpha-synuclein aggregation further exacerbates neuronal damage (Lynch, 2010). Similarly, in diabetes, chronic low-grade inflammation and oxidative stress are key drivers of insulin resistance, beta-cell dysfunction, and the development of chronic complications. Elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and AGEs in diabetes contribute to tissue damage and the progression of the disease (Evans et al., 2002).

### *2.3.3. Potential Shared Pathways in Mitochondrial Dysfunction*

Mitochondrial dysfunction is another potential shared pathway in the progression of Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus. In PD, mitochondrial dysfunction in dopaminergic neurons leads to impaired energy production, increased oxidative stress, and the release of pro-apoptotic factors, contributing to neuronal death (Exner et al., 2012). In diabetes, mitochondrial dysfunction in insulin-sensitive tissues such as muscle, liver, and beta cells leads to impaired glucose and lipid metabolism, increased oxidative stress, and the activation of stress-related signaling pathways, contributing to insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction (Lowell & Shulman, 2005). The shared involvement of mitochondrial

dysfunction in both diseases suggests that targeting mitochondrial health could be a potential therapeutic strategy for both Parkinson's disease and diabetes.

---

### 3. Potential for Inter-Individual Transmission

#### 3.1. Parkinson's Disease: Prion-Like Transmission Theories

##### 3.1.1. Prion-Like Propagation Within the Nervous System

Parkinson's disease (PD) has increasingly been associated with prion-like mechanisms of disease propagation within the nervous system. In prion diseases, misfolded proteins induce the misfolding of normal proteins, leading to a cascade of pathology. Similarly, in PD, the misfolded alpha-synuclein is believed to spread from one neuron to another, templating the misfolding of alpha-synuclein in recipient neurons. This process is thought to occur through mechanisms such as synaptic transmission, exocytosis, and uptake by adjacent neurons, leading to the progressive spread of the disease within the brain (Brundin et al., 2016). The prion-like nature of alpha-synuclein has been demonstrated in experimental models where inoculation of misfolded alpha-synuclein into the brains of healthy animals induces PD-like pathology, which then spreads along neural pathways (Luk et al., 2012).

##### 3.1.2. Hypothetical Scenarios of Inter-Individual Transmission

While prion-like propagation within an individual's nervous system is increasingly supported by evidence, the possibility of inter-individual transmission of Parkinson's disease is highly speculative and remains largely theoretical. Hypothetical scenarios of inter-individual transmission could involve the transfer of misfolded alpha-synuclein from one person to another, potentially through direct exposure to contaminated neural tissues, surgical instruments, or other medical procedures involving the central nervous system. This possibility has raised concerns about the iatrogenic transmission of PD, similar to what has been observed in prion diseases like Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD) (Nalls et al., 2014). However, there is currently no conclusive evidence that PD can be transmitted between individuals under natural circumstances.

##### 3.1.3. Iatrogenic Transmission Concerns

Iatrogenic transmission refers to the accidental transmission of a disease as a result of medical procedures or treatments. In the context of PD, concerns have been raised about the potential for iatrogenic transmission of alpha-synuclein pathology, particularly through neurosurgical procedures or the transplantation of neural tissues. For example, the transplantation of fetal mesencephalic tissue in PD patients has been associated with the development of Lewy body pathology in the grafted neurons, raising concerns about the transmission of alpha-synuclein pathology from host to graft (Kordower et al., 2008). Additionally, the potential contamination of surgical instruments with misfolded alpha-synuclein and their subsequent use in other patients could theoretically pose a risk of iatrogenic transmission. However, the actual risk of such transmission in clinical practice remains uncertain and is likely to be very low.

##### 3.1.4. Current Evidence and Knowledge Gaps

Despite the theoretical concerns, there is currently no definitive evidence that Parkinson's disease can be transmitted between individuals. Most studies investigating prion-like transmission of alpha-synuclein have been conducted in animal models, and while these studies provide valuable insights into the mechanisms of disease propagation, they do not directly address the question of inter-individual transmission in humans (Rey et al., 2019). Furthermore, the lack of documented cases of iatrogenic transmission of PD suggests that, even if such transmission is possible, it is likely to be extremely rare. Significant knowledge gaps remain regarding the potential for inter-individual transmission of PD, and further research is needed to better understand the risks and mechanisms involved.

#### 3.2. Diabetes Mellitus: Genetic, Epigenetic, and Environmental Factors

##### 3.2.1. Hereditary Transmission of Risk Factors

Unlike PD, diabetes mellitus (DM), particularly Type 2 diabetes (T2D), is not typically associated with prion-like mechanisms or the transmission of a pathogenic agent. Instead, the transmission of diabetes risk is largely hereditary, with genetic factors playing a significant role in the predisposition to the disease. Numerous genetic variants have been identified that increase the risk of developing T2D, many of which are involved in pathways related to insulin secretion, insulin resistance, and beta-cell function (Lyssenko et al., 2008). The hereditary nature of diabetes is evident from studies showing a higher prevalence of the disease among first-degree relatives of individuals with diabetes, as well as in certain ethnic populations with a genetic predisposition to the disease (Meigs et al., 2000).

### 3.2.2. Environmental and Lifestyle Influences

In addition to genetic factors, environmental and lifestyle factors play a critical role in the development and progression of diabetes. These factors include diet, physical activity, body weight, and exposure to certain environmental toxins. For example, a diet high in refined carbohydrates and saturated fats, combined with a sedentary lifestyle, is a major contributor to the development of insulin resistance and T2D (Hu et al., 2001). Moreover, the increasing prevalence of obesity worldwide has been closely linked to the rising incidence of T2D, as excess body fat, particularly visceral fat, is strongly associated with insulin resistance (Kahn et al., 2006). Environmental factors such as exposure to endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs) have also been implicated in the development of T2D by interfering with insulin signaling and metabolism (Grün & Blumberg, 2009).

### 3.2.3. Concept of "Social Transmission" in Diabetes Prevalence

The concept of "social transmission" refers to the idea that the prevalence of diabetes within a population can be influenced by social factors and behaviors that are shared within families, communities, and societies. For example, dietary habits, physical activity levels, and attitudes toward health and wellness are often influenced by cultural norms and social networks, which can contribute to the spread of diabetes within a population (Christakis & Fowler, 2007). The rise in diabetes prevalence in many parts of the world has been attributed, in part, to the globalization of unhealthy dietary practices and sedentary lifestyles, which have been "transmitted" across populations through media, marketing, and cultural exchange (Popkin, 2006). This social transmission of risk factors highlights the complex interplay between genetics, environment, and social factors in the spread of diabetes.

## 3.3. Comparative Analysis: Transmission Potential

### 3.3.1. Distinguishing Infectious Transmission from Genetic/Environmental Spread

When comparing Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus in terms of transmission potential, it is crucial to distinguish between infectious transmission, as seen in prion diseases, and the spread of disease risk through genetic, environmental, and social factors. While PD has been hypothesized to involve prion-like propagation within the nervous system, there is currently no evidence to suggest that it can be transmitted between individuals in an infectious manner. In contrast, diabetes is not associated with the transmission of a pathogenic agent, but rather with the hereditary transmission of risk factors, as well as the influence of environmental and social factors. Therefore, the "transmission" of diabetes occurs through the passing of genes and the adoption of lifestyle practices that increase the risk of developing the disease, rather than through the spread of an infectious agent.

### 3.3.2. Theoretical and Ethical Implications

The potential for inter-individual transmission of Parkinson's disease, even if hypothetical, raises significant theoretical and ethical implications. If prion-like transmission of alpha-synuclein were proven to occur between individuals, it would challenge current understandings of PD as a non-communicable disease and could have profound implications for public health practices, particularly in the context of neurosurgery and tissue transplantation (Jaunmuktane & Brandner, 2020). Ethical considerations would also arise regarding the screening and handling of biological materials, informed consent for surgical procedures, and the communication of risks to patients and the public.

In the case of diabetes, the transmission of risk factors through genetic and environmental means raises ethical questions related to public health interventions, health education, and the responsibility of society to address the social determinants of health. For example, efforts to reduce the prevalence of diabetes through public health campaigns and policy changes must balance individual responsibility with the recognition of the broader social and environmental factors that contribute to the disease. Additionally, the potential for "blame" on individuals or groups for their genetic predisposition or lifestyle choices must be carefully considered in the context of ethical public health practices.

---

## 4. Common Pathways and Risk Factors

### 4.1. Inflammation and Oxidative Stress

#### 4.1.1. The Role of Chronic Inflammation in PD and DM

Chronic inflammation is a critical factor in the pathophysiology of both Parkinson's disease (PD) and diabetes mellitus (DM). In PD, neuroinflammation is driven by activated microglia, the brain's resident immune cells, which release pro-inflammatory cytokines and other neurotoxic factors that contribute to neuronal death (Tansey & Goldberg, 2010). This

chronic inflammatory response is thought to exacerbate the misfolding and aggregation of alpha-synuclein, a hallmark of PD, further promoting neurodegeneration.

Similarly, in diabetes, particularly type 2 diabetes (T2D), chronic low-grade inflammation is central to the development of insulin resistance. Adipose tissue in obese individuals secretes pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF-alpha and IL-6, which interfere with insulin signaling pathways in various tissues, including muscle and liver, leading to systemic insulin resistance (Hotamisligil, 2006). This chronic inflammation also contributes to the development of diabetic complications such as cardiovascular disease, neuropathy, and nephropathy.

#### *4.1.2. Oxidative Stress as a Unifying Factor*

Oxidative stress is another shared pathway in the pathogenesis of PD and DM. In PD, oxidative stress arises from mitochondrial dysfunction, leading to the overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which damage cellular components, including lipids, proteins, and DNA (Exner et al., 2012). The brain's high metabolic demand and relatively low antioxidant defenses make it particularly vulnerable to oxidative damage, which is believed to play a significant role in the death of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra.

In DM, oxidative stress is similarly implicated in the disease's progression and complications. Hyperglycemia, a defining feature of diabetes, leads to the production of advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) and ROS, which damage endothelial cells and contribute to vascular complications such as atherosclerosis (Brownlee, 2001). Moreover, oxidative stress is closely linked with chronic inflammation in diabetes, creating a vicious cycle that exacerbates metabolic dysregulation.

## **4.2. Mitochondrial Dysfunction**

### *4.2.1. Mitochondrial Pathways in Neurodegeneration and Metabolic Disease*

Mitochondrial dysfunction is a critical factor in both PD and DM. In PD, defects in mitochondrial function, particularly within dopaminergic neurons, lead to energy deficits and increased oxidative stress, which contribute to neuronal death (Schapira, 2012). Mutations in genes related to mitochondrial function, such as PINK1 and Parkin, have been linked to familial forms of PD, further highlighting the importance of mitochondrial health in neurodegeneration.

In DM, particularly in T2D, mitochondrial dysfunction is implicated in the development of insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction. Mitochondria play a crucial role in glucose metabolism and insulin secretion, and defects in mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation can impair these processes, leading to hyperglycemia and the progression of diabetes (Lowell & Shulman, 2005). Moreover, mitochondrial dysfunction contributes to the production of ROS, which exacerbates oxidative stress and inflammation, further driving the pathophysiology of both diseases.

### *4.2.2. Genetic Mutations Affecting Mitochondrial Function in Both Diseases*

Genetic mutations that impact mitochondrial function have been identified in both PD and DM. In PD, mutations in the PARK genes (such as PINK1, Parkin, and DJ-1) disrupt mitochondrial quality control, leading to the accumulation of damaged mitochondria and increased susceptibility to neurodegeneration (Exner et al., 2012). Similarly, in DM, mutations in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and nuclear genes involved in mitochondrial function have been associated with insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction (Petersen et al., 2004). These genetic links underscore the shared importance of mitochondrial health in both neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases.

## **4.3. Metabolic Syndrome as a Shared Risk Factor**

### *4.3.1. Obesity, Insulin Resistance, and Their Connections to PD*

Metabolic syndrome, characterized by obesity, insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and hypertension, is a significant risk factor for both PD and DM. In PD, obesity and insulin resistance have been associated with an increased risk of developing the disease, possibly due to the pro-inflammatory and pro-oxidative effects of excess adipose tissue (Hu et al., 2006). Insulin resistance may also impair dopamine metabolism and increase the vulnerability of dopaminergic neurons to oxidative stress, contributing to the development of PD (Santiago & Potashkin, 2013).

In DM, metabolic syndrome is a well-established risk factor, particularly for T2D. The central role of insulin resistance in the pathogenesis of T2D highlights the overlap in metabolic pathways that may also be relevant to PD. Additionally, the presence of cardiovascular risk factors, such as hypertension and dyslipidemia, further links metabolic syndrome

to both diseases, as these factors contribute to the development of both neurodegenerative and metabolic complications.

#### 4.3.2. Cardiovascular Risk Factors Common to Both Diseases

Cardiovascular risk factors, including hypertension, dyslipidemia, and atherosclerosis, are common to both PD and DM and may contribute to their shared pathophysiology. In PD, cardiovascular risk factors have been associated with an increased risk of developing the disease, potentially due to their impact on cerebral blood flow and the integrity of the blood-brain barrier (Abbott et al., 2012). In DM, cardiovascular complications are a major cause of morbidity and mortality, and the presence of these risk factors is a key determinant of disease progression and outcomes (Kannel & McGee, 1979). The overlap in cardiovascular risk factors suggests that common pathways, such as endothelial dysfunction and oxidative stress, may underlie the association between metabolic and neurodegenerative diseases.

### 4.4. Gut-Brain Axis in Disease Development

#### 4.4.1. Microbiome's Role in PD and DM

The gut-brain axis, which describes the bidirectional communication between the gastrointestinal (GI) tract and the central nervous system (CNS), has emerged as a critical factor in the development of both PD and DM. In PD, emerging research suggests that the gut microbiome may play a role in the disease's pathogenesis by influencing neuroinflammation, alpha-synuclein aggregation, and the gut-brain axis (Sampson et al., 2016). For example, alterations in the gut microbiota have been observed in PD patients, with specific bacterial taxa linked to the severity of motor symptoms and the progression of the disease (Scheperjans et al., 2015).

In DM, the gut microbiome is similarly implicated in the development of insulin resistance and metabolic dysfunction. Dysbiosis, or an imbalance in the gut microbiota, has been associated with obesity, insulin resistance, and systemic inflammation, all of which contribute to the pathogenesis of T2D (Qin et al., 2012). The gut microbiota influences host metabolism through various mechanisms, including the modulation of gut barrier integrity, bile acid metabolism, and the production of short-chain fatty acids, which can affect insulin sensitivity and glucose metabolism.

#### 4.4.2. Emerging Research on Gut Microbiota's Influence on Disease Progression

Research on the gut microbiota's influence on disease progression in PD and DM is still in its early stages but holds significant promise for understanding the shared pathophysiological mechanisms between these diseases. In PD, the concept of the gut-brain axis suggests that the GI tract may be an initial site of alpha-synuclein pathology, which then spreads to the brain via the vagus nerve (Braak et al., 2003). This hypothesis is supported by studies showing that alpha-synuclein aggregates can be detected in the enteric nervous system and that vagotomy, a surgical procedure that cuts the vagus nerve, may reduce the risk of developing PD (Liu et al., 2017).

In DM, interventions targeting the gut microbiota, such as probiotics, prebiotics, and dietary modifications, have shown promise in improving insulin sensitivity and reducing systemic inflammation (Everard & Cani, 2013). These findings suggest that the gut microbiota may play a crucial role in modulating the metabolic pathways involved in diabetes and that similar mechanisms may be relevant to the progression of PD. Further research is needed to fully elucidate the role of the gut microbiota in these diseases and to explore the potential for therapeutic interventions targeting the gut-brain axis.

---

## 5. Implications for Treatment and Prevention

### 5.1. Targeting Inflammation and Oxidative Stress

#### 5.1.1. Therapeutic Strategies for Modulating Inflammation

Given the significant role of chronic inflammation in both Parkinson's disease (PD) and diabetes mellitus (DM), targeting inflammatory pathways presents a promising therapeutic approach. In PD, the modulation of neuroinflammation through anti-inflammatory drugs has been explored, with some studies indicating potential benefits. For instance, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) have been investigated for their ability to reduce the risk of PD, though results have been mixed and further research is needed to establish their efficacy in disease progression (Chen et al., 2005). In DM, anti-inflammatory agents like salicylates and TNF-alpha inhibitors have been shown to improve insulin sensitivity and glycemic control in clinical trials, highlighting the therapeutic potential of reducing systemic inflammation in managing diabetes (Goldfine et al., 2013).



### 5.1.2. Antioxidant Therapies and Their Potential for Both PD and DM

Oxidative stress is another shared pathological feature of PD and DM, making antioxidant therapies a logical target for treatment. In PD, antioxidants such as Coenzyme Q10, vitamin E, and N-acetylcysteine have been studied for their neuroprotective effects. Although some preclinical studies have shown promise, clinical trials have yielded inconsistent results, indicating the need for further research to determine the efficacy of these agents in slowing neurodegeneration (Beal, 2011).

In DM, antioxidants like alpha-lipoic acid and vitamins C and E have been investigated for their ability to reduce oxidative stress and improve insulin sensitivity. While these supplements have shown some benefits in improving glycemic control and reducing diabetic complications, their long-term efficacy and safety require further validation through large-scale clinical trials (Evans et al., 2002). Given the role of oxidative stress in both diseases, there is potential for developing dual-purpose antioxidant therapies that could mitigate the effects of both PD and DM.

## 5.2. Lifestyle Interventions

### 5.2.1. Diet and Exercise in the Prevention and Management of Both Diseases

Lifestyle interventions, including diet and exercise, are fundamental strategies for preventing and managing both PD and DM. A balanced diet rich in fruits, vegetables, whole grains, and healthy fats has been associated with a reduced risk of developing both conditions. For example, the Mediterranean diet, which is high in antioxidants and anti-inflammatory nutrients, has been linked to a lower incidence of PD and improved glycemic control in DM patients (Martínez-González & Martín-Calvo, 2016).

Exercise is another crucial component of lifestyle intervention. Regular physical activity has been shown to improve motor function and slow the progression of PD, possibly by enhancing neuroplasticity and reducing inflammation (Speelman et al., 2011). In DM, exercise is well-established as a key factor in improving insulin sensitivity, reducing body weight, and controlling blood glucose levels. Both aerobic and resistance training have been recommended as part of comprehensive diabetes management (Colberg et al., 2010). Encouraging patients with PD or DM to adopt regular physical activity and a healthy diet can significantly impact disease outcomes.

### 5.2.2. Specific Lifestyle Recommendations Supported by Research

For individuals at risk of or living with PD or DM, specific lifestyle recommendations supported by research include:

- Adopting a Mediterranean diet: Emphasizing fruits, vegetables, nuts, legumes, fish, and olive oil while reducing red meat and processed foods. This diet has been associated with lower risks of neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases.
- Engaging in regular physical activity: At least 150 minutes per week of moderate-intensity aerobic exercise, combined with resistance training, can help improve motor symptoms in PD and enhance insulin sensitivity in DM.
- Maintaining a healthy weight: Achieving and maintaining a healthy body weight can reduce the risk of both PD and DM by lowering systemic inflammation and oxidative stress.
- Avoiding smoking and excessive alcohol consumption: Both of which have been linked to increased risks of neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases.

## 5.3. Pharmacological Interventions

### 5.3.1. Current Medications with Potential Dual Benefits

Several medications currently used to treat PD or DM may have potential benefits for the other condition due to shared pathophysiological pathways. For example, GLP-1 receptor agonists, such as exenatide, used in the treatment of T2D, have shown neuroprotective effects in preclinical models of PD. These drugs enhance insulin signaling in the brain, reduce neuroinflammation, and improve mitochondrial function, making them promising candidates for repurposing in PD (Athauda & Foltynie, 2016).

Similarly, metformin, a widely used antidiabetic drug, has been investigated for its neuroprotective properties. Metformin activates AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), a key regulator of cellular energy homeostasis, which has been shown to promote neuronal survival and reduce the accumulation of alpha-synuclein in models of PD (Katila et al., 2014). These findings suggest that certain medications may offer dual benefits for both neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases, though further clinical trials are needed to establish their efficacy in PD patients.

### 5.3.2. Investigating Repurposing of Drugs for Shared Pathways

The concept of drug repurposing involves investigating existing medications for new therapeutic applications based on shared disease pathways. In the context of PD and DM, several drugs are being explored for their potential to target common mechanisms such as inflammation, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction. For example, pioglitazone, a thiazolidinedione used to treat T2D, has been studied for its anti-inflammatory and neuroprotective effects in PD. While early results have been mixed, ongoing research aims to determine whether this class of drugs can slow the progression of PD (Brauer et al., 2015).

Another area of interest is the use of statins, cholesterol-lowering drugs, which have been associated with a reduced risk of both PD and DM. Statins' anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties may contribute to their protective effects, making them candidates for further investigation in the context of neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases (Benito-León et al., 2017).

## 5.4. Future Directions in Therapeutic Research

### 5.4.1. Personalized Medicine Approaches

The future of treating and preventing PD and DM may lie in personalized medicine, which tailors therapeutic strategies to individual patients based on their genetic, environmental, and lifestyle factors. Advances in genomics and biomarker discovery have the potential to identify patients at high risk for these diseases and to guide the selection of targeted therapies that address specific molecular pathways involved in disease progression (Kalia & Lang, 2015).

For instance, in PD, genetic testing for mutations in genes such as LRRK2, PARK7, and GBA could help identify individuals at risk and guide early intervention strategies, potentially delaying the onset or progression of the disease. Similarly, in DM, genetic and metabolic profiling could inform personalized treatment plans that optimize glycemic control and reduce the risk of complications (Florez, 2008).

### 5.4.2. Gene Therapy and Its Potential Implications

Gene therapy represents a cutting-edge approach to treating both PD and DM by directly addressing the genetic and molecular causes of these diseases. In PD, gene therapy efforts have focused on delivering neuroprotective factors, such as GDNF (glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor), or correcting genetic defects through the use of viral vectors. Early clinical trials have shown promise, with some patients experiencing improvements in motor function and a reduction in disease progression (Marks et al., 2010).

In DM, gene therapy research is exploring the possibility of restoring insulin production in patients with type 1 diabetes or enhancing insulin sensitivity in those with type 2 diabetes. This approach involves the introduction of genes that encode insulin or other key proteins involved in glucose metabolism, potentially offering a long-term solution to diabetes management (Xie et al., 2013).

While gene therapy remains in the experimental stages for both diseases, ongoing advancements in this field hold the potential to revolutionize the treatment of PD and DM, offering new hope for patients with these chronic conditions.

---

## 6. Emerging Research and Future Directions

### 6.1. Advances in Understanding Disease Mechanisms

#### 6.1.1. New Insights into the Prion-Like Behavior of Alpha-Synuclein

Recent research has deepened our understanding of the prion-like behavior of alpha-synuclein, a key protein involved in Parkinson's disease (PD). Alpha-synuclein misfolding and aggregation are central to the pathogenesis of PD, and these misfolded proteins can propagate from cell to cell, much like prions. This propagation leads to the spread of neurodegenerative pathology throughout the nervous system. Recent studies have highlighted the mechanisms by which alpha-synuclein spreads, including its release from neurons via exosomes or vesicles, uptake by neighboring cells, and subsequent seeding of further misfolding (Surmeier et al., 2017). These findings suggest that therapies targeting the early stages of alpha-synuclein aggregation and transmission could be crucial in halting the progression of PD.

### *6.1.2. Recent Findings on the Genetic Basis of Insulin Resistance*

In diabetes mellitus (DM), particularly type 2 diabetes (T2D), insulin resistance is a hallmark feature. Advances in genetic research have identified multiple genes associated with insulin resistance, providing new insights into its molecular underpinnings. For instance, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified variants in genes such as TCF7L2, PPARG, and FTO that are linked to an increased risk of insulin resistance and T2D (Kwak et al., 2018). Furthermore, studies have shown that epigenetic modifications, such as DNA methylation and histone acetylation, can influence the expression of genes involved in insulin signaling pathways, adding another layer of complexity to our understanding of T2D pathogenesis (Simmons, 2017). These discoveries open the door to personalized therapeutic strategies that target the genetic and epigenetic factors contributing to insulin resistance.

## **6.2. Role of the Gut-Brain Axis**

### *6.2.1. Current Studies on the Microbiome in PD and DM*

The gut-brain axis has emerged as a critical area of research in understanding both PD and DM. In PD, alterations in gut microbiota have been linked to the disease's onset and progression. Studies have shown that patients with PD have distinct gut microbiome profiles compared to healthy individuals, with a notable decrease in short-chain fatty acid-producing bacteria, which are crucial for maintaining gut health and modulating neuroinflammation (Sampson et al., 2016). This suggests that gut dysbiosis could contribute to the neurodegenerative process in PD.

Similarly, in DM, particularly T2D, the gut microbiome plays a significant role in metabolic regulation. Dysbiosis in the gut microbiota has been associated with insulin resistance, chronic inflammation, and altered glucose metabolism. For example, specific bacterial strains, such as *Akkermansia muciniphila*, have been shown to improve glucose tolerance and reduce obesity, highlighting the therapeutic potential of targeting the gut microbiome in DM management (Qin et al., 2012).

### *6.2.2. Potential for Gut-Targeted Therapies*

Given the critical role of the gut microbiome in both PD and DM, there is growing interest in developing gut-targeted therapies. These therapies could include probiotics, prebiotics, and dietary interventions designed to restore a healthy gut microbiome balance. In PD, such therapies aim to reduce neuroinflammation and slow neurodegeneration, while in DM, they focus on improving insulin sensitivity and metabolic health. Additionally, fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) is being explored as a potential treatment for both diseases, although its safety and efficacy require further investigation (Kang et al., 2014).

## **6.3. Genetic and Epigenetic Insights**

### *6.3.1. Ongoing Research in Epigenetics of PD and DM*

Epigenetics, the study of heritable changes in gene expression that do not involve changes to the DNA sequence, has become a focal point in understanding PD and DM. In PD, epigenetic modifications, such as DNA methylation and histone modifications, have been implicated in the regulation of genes involved in neuroinflammation, alpha-synuclein aggregation, and mitochondrial dysfunction (Horvath & Ritz, 2017). Similarly, in DM, epigenetic changes play a crucial role in insulin resistance, beta-cell dysfunction, and the development of diabetic complications. For example, hypermethylation of the insulin gene promoter has been linked to decreased insulin production in T2D (Ling & Rönn, 2019).

### *6.3.2. Potential for Early Detection and Prevention Strategies*

The advances in epigenetic research offer the potential for early detection and prevention strategies in both PD and DM. Biomarkers based on epigenetic modifications could be used to identify individuals at high risk for these diseases, enabling earlier intervention. For instance, detecting specific DNA methylation patterns in blood samples could serve as an early indicator of PD or DM risk, leading to preventive measures such as lifestyle modifications or targeted therapies (Feinberg, 2018). Furthermore, epigenetic therapies that reverse harmful modifications are being explored, with the potential to modify disease progression at an early stage.

## 6.4. Theoretical Implications of Disease Transmission

### 6.4.1. Ethical Considerations in Research and Clinical Practice

The concept of disease transmission, particularly the prion-like spread of alpha-synuclein in PD, raises significant ethical considerations in both research and clinical practice. If PD can spread in a manner similar to prions, this would have profound implications for how we approach the disease, particularly in terms of infection control, patient management, and public health policies. Ethical questions arise regarding the management of patients in clinical settings, the potential need for screening healthcare workers for PD-related biomarkers, and the development of protocols to prevent possible transmission (Prusiner, 2013).

Similarly, the notion that DM risk factors can be "socially transmitted" through shared environments and lifestyles also presents ethical challenges. Public health campaigns and interventions aimed at reducing the prevalence of DM must consider the balance between promoting healthy behaviors and respecting individual autonomy. The stigmatization of individuals with DM or at high risk of the disease due to their lifestyle choices is a potential concern that requires careful consideration in the design and implementation of public health strategies (Thompson, 2017).

### 6.4.2. Public Health Implications of New Transmission Hypotheses

The emerging hypotheses regarding the transmission of PD and DM have significant public health implications. If PD exhibits prion-like transmission, this could necessitate the revision of current guidelines for handling biological materials from PD patients, as well as increased research funding to explore the mechanisms of transmission and develop preventive measures. Public health authorities would need to assess the risk of iatrogenic transmission and consider the implementation of stricter protocols in surgical and medical procedures involving the nervous system (Soto, 2011).

In the case of DM, understanding the role of social and environmental factors in disease transmission could lead to more effective public health interventions. For example, community-based programs that promote healthy eating, physical activity, and stress management could be tailored to target at-risk populations, potentially reducing the incidence of DM. Additionally, policies aimed at reducing socioeconomic disparities, improving access to healthcare, and addressing food deserts could play a crucial role in preventing the spread of DM within communities (Hu, 2011).

---

## 7. Conclusion

### 7.1. Summary of Key Findings

This report has explored the intriguing similarities between Parkinson's disease (PD) and diabetes mellitus (DM), particularly in terms of their disease mechanisms, patterns of spread within the body, and potential transmission. Both PD and DM are chronic, progressive diseases that exhibit complex interactions between genetic, epigenetic, and environmental factors.

**Disease Mechanisms:** PD and DM share common pathological features such as chronic inflammation, oxidative stress, and mitochondrial dysfunction. In PD, the misfolding and aggregation of alpha-synuclein play a central role in neurodegeneration, similar to how insulin resistance and pancreatic beta-cell dysfunction underpin DM.

**Spread Within the Body:** Both diseases demonstrate a progressive nature, with PD spreading through the nervous system via prion-like propagation of alpha-synuclein, while DM spreads metabolic dysregulation across various tissues. The gut-brain axis has emerged as a crucial link between the two diseases, with gut microbiota influencing disease progression in both cases.

**Potential Transmission:** The concept of prion-like transmission in PD, though still theoretical, raises the possibility of inter-individual transmission under certain conditions. In contrast, DM's "transmission" is more about the hereditary transmission of risk factors and the influence of environmental and lifestyle factors, which can create a "social transmission" effect in populations.

These similarities highlight the potential for shared pathways and common therapeutic targets, opening new avenues for research and treatment.

## 7.2. Implications for Research and Practice

The insights gained from comparing PD and DM could have significant implications for future research and clinical practice:

**Research Implications:** Understanding the shared mechanisms between PD and DM could lead to the identification of common biomarkers for early detection and diagnosis. Further exploration of the gut-brain axis and the role of inflammation and oxidative stress could yield novel therapeutic targets. Additionally, the potential prion-like transmission of PD warrants further investigation to understand the risks and develop strategies to mitigate potential iatrogenic transmission.

**Clinical Practice:** These findings suggest the need for a more holistic approach to managing both PD and DM, taking into account the interconnected nature of their pathophysiologies. Lifestyle interventions, such as diet and exercise, could be emphasized as preventive measures for both diseases. Pharmacological interventions could also be repurposed to target shared pathways, providing dual benefits for patients with comorbid conditions.

Moreover, personalized medicine approaches that consider genetic and epigenetic factors could improve treatment outcomes, while public health strategies might need to address the social determinants of health that contribute to the spread of DM.

## 7.3. Final Thoughts on the Interconnection Between PD and DM

The interconnection between Parkinson's disease and diabetes mellitus is a fascinating and complex subject, revealing how two seemingly distinct diseases may share underlying mechanisms and pathways. The chronic, progressive nature of both diseases, coupled with their shared risk factors and potential for overlapping treatment strategies, underscores the importance of a multidisciplinary approach to research and care.

By continuing to explore these connections, we may uncover new ways to prevent and treat both PD and DM, ultimately improving the quality of life for millions of people affected by these conditions. The emerging research in this area holds great promise, not only for advancing our understanding of these diseases but also for paving the way toward more effective and personalized healthcare solutions.

### *Abbreviations and acronyms*

PD : Parkinson's Disease

DM : Diabetes Mellitus

---

## Compliance with ethical standard

### *Acknowledgement*

I would like to extend my appreciation to the researchers, authors, and scholars whose work laid the foundation for my study. Their contributions to the field of neurodegenerative and metabolic diseases inspired and informed the discussions presented in this report.

I would also like to acknowledge that this paper's language was refined with assistance from AI tools, ensuring clarity and fluency, while the content and analysis remain my own.

### *Disclosure of conflict of Interest*

The author declares that there are no conflicts of interest related to the research, authorship, or publication of this report

### *Funding*

No financial support or funding from commercial organizations, pharmaceutical companies, or other entities with a vested interest in the outcomes of this research was received during the preparation of this report. All findings, interpretations, and conclusions are based solely on academic research and available scientific evidence, and have been presented impartially and without bias.

## References

- [1] Bliss, M. (1982). *The Discovery of Insulin*. University of Chicago Press.
- [2] Braak, H., Del Tredici, K., Rüb, U., de Vos, R. A., Jansen Steur, E. N., & Braak, E. (2003). Staging of brain pathology related to sporadic Parkinson's disease. *Neurobiology of Aging*, 24(2), 197-211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0197-4580\(02\)00065-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0197-4580(02)00065-9)
- [3] Brundin, P., Melki, R., & Kopito, R. (2010). Prion-like transmission of protein aggregates in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 11(4), 301-307. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm2873>
- [4] DeFronzo, R. A., Ferrannini, E., Zimmet, P., & Alberti, G. (2015). *International textbook of diabetes mellitus* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
- [5] Hu, F. B., Manson, J. E., Stampfer, M. J., Colditz, G., Liu, S., Solomon, C. G., & Willett, W. C. (2001). Diet, lifestyle, and the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus in women. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 345(11), 790-797. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa010492>
- [6] Kalia, L. V., & Lang, A. E. (2015). Parkinson's disease. *The Lancet*, 386(9996), 896-912. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61393-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61393-3)
- [7] Lees, A. J., Hardy, J., & Revesz, T. (2009). Parkinson's disease. *The Lancet*, 373(9680), 2055-2066. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(09\)60492-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(09)60492-X)
- [8] Poewe, W., Seppi, K., Tanner, C. M., Halliday, G. M., Brundin, P., Volkman, J., ... & Lang, A. E. (2017). Parkinson disease. *Nature Reviews Disease Primers*, 3(1), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrdp.2017.13>
- [9] Skyler, J. S., Bakris, G. L., Bonifacio, E., Darsow, T., Eckel, R. H., Groop, L., & Ratner, R. E. (2017). Differentiation of diabetes by pathophysiology, natural history, and prognosis. *Diabetes*, 66(2), 241-255. <https://doi.org/10.2337/db16-0806>
- [10] Winklhofer, K. F., & Haass, C. (2010). Mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Molecular Basis of Disease*, 1802(1), 29-44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2009.08.013>
- [11] Zimmet, P. Z., Magliano, D. J., Herman, W. H., & Shaw, J. E. (2014). Diabetes: A 21st century challenge. *The Lancet Diabetes & Endocrinology*, 2(1), 56-64. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587\(13\)70112-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-8587(13)70112-8)
- [12] Antonetti, D. A., Klein, R., & Gardner, T. W. (2012). Diabetic retinopathy. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 366(13), 1227-1239. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra1005073>
- [13] Braak, H., Del Tredici, K., Rüb, U., de Vos, R. A., Jansen Steur, E. N., & Braak, E. (2003). Staging of brain pathology related to sporadic Parkinson's disease. *Neurobiology of Aging*, 24(2), 197-211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0197-4580\(02\)00065-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0197-4580(02)00065-9)
- [14] Brundin, P., Melki, R., & Kopito, R. (2010). Prion-like transmission of protein aggregates in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 11(4), 301-307. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm2873>
- [15] Dauer, W., & Przedborski, S. (2003). Parkinson's disease: Mechanisms and models. *Neuron*, 39(6), 889-909. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273\(03\)00568-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(03)00568-3)
- [16] DeFronzo, R. A. (2009). From the triumvirate to the ominous octet: A new paradigm for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes*, 58(4), 773-795. <https://doi.org/10.2337/db09-9028>
- [17] Evans, J. L., Goldfine, I. D., Maddux, B. A., & Grodsky, G. M. (2002). Oxidative stress and stress-activated signaling pathways: A unifying hypothesis of type 2 diabetes. *Endocrine Reviews*, 23(5), 599-622. <https://doi.org/10.1210/er.2001-0039>
- [18] Exner, N., Lutz, A. K., Haass, C., & Winklhofer, K. F. (2012). Mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson's disease: Molecular mechanisms and pathophysiological consequences. *EMBO Journal*, 31(14), 3038-3062. <https://doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2012.170>
- [19] Holmqvist, S., Chutna, O., Bousset, L., Aldrin-Kirk, P., Li, J. Y., Björklund, T., ... & Rey, N. L. (2014). Direct evidence of Parkinson pathology spread from the gastrointestinal tract to the brain in rats. *Acta Neuropathologica*, 128(6), 805-820. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00401-014-1343-6>
- [20] Kahn, S. E., Cooper, M. E., & Del Prato, S. (2014). Pathophysiology and treatment of type 2 diabetes: Perspectives on the past, present, and future. *The Lancet*, 383(9922), 1068-1083. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(13\)62154-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)62154-6)

- [21] Luk, K. C., Kehm, V., Carroll, J., Zhang, B., O'Brien, P., Trojanowski, J. Q., & Lee, V. M. (2012). Pathological  $\alpha$ -synuclein transmission initiates Parkinson-like neurodegeneration in nontransgenic mice. *Science*, 338(6109), 949-953. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science>.
- [22] Brundin, P., Melki, R., & Kopito, R. (2016). Prion-like transmission of protein aggregates in neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*, 11(4), 301-307. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm2873>
- [23] Christakis, N. A., & Fowler, J. H. (2007). The spread of obesity in a large social network over 32 years. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 357(4), 370-379. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMsa066082>
- [24] Grün, F., & Blumberg, B. (2009). Endocrine disruptors as obesogens. *Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology*, 304(1-2), 19-29. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mce.2009.02.018>
- [25] Hu, F. B., Manson, J. E., Stampfer, M. J., Colditz, G., Liu, S., Solomon, C. G., & Willett, W. C. (2001). Diet, lifestyle, and the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus in women. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 345(11), 790-797. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa010492>
- [26] Jaunmuktane, Z., & Brandner, S. (2020). Invited review: The role of prion-like mechanisms in neurodegenerative diseases. *Neuropathology and Applied Neurobiology*, 46(5), 526-545. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nan.12597>
- [27] Kahn, S. E., Hull, R. L., & Utzschneider, K. M. (2006). Mechanisms linking obesity to insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes. *Nature*, 444(7121), 840-846. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature05482>
- [28] Kordower, J. H., Chu, Y., Hauser, R. A., Freeman, T. B., & Olanow, C. W. (2008). Lewy body-like pathology in long-term embryonic nigral transplants in Parkinson's disease. *Nature Medicine*, 14(5), 504-506. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nm1747>
- [29] Luk, K. C., Kehm, V. M., Zhang, B., O'Brien, P., Trojanowski, J. Q., & Lee, V. M. (2012). Pathological  $\alpha$ -synuclein transmission initiates Parkinson-like neurodegeneration in nontransgenic mice. *Science*, 338(6109), 949-953. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1227157>
- [30] Lyssenko, V., Jonsson, A., Almgren, P., Pulizzi, N., Isomaa, B., Tuomi, T., & Groop, L. (2008). Clinical risk factors, DNA variants, and the development of type 2 diabetes. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 359(21), 2220-2232. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa0801869>
- [31] Meigs, J. B., Cupples, L. A., & Wilson, P. W. (2000). Parental transmission of type 2 diabetes: The Framingham Offspring Study. *Diabetes*, 49(12), 2201-2207. <https://doi.org/10.2337/diabetes.49.12.2201>
- [32] Nalls, M. A., Pankratz, N., Lill, C. M., Do, C. B., Hernandez, D. G., Saad, M., ... & Foroud, T. (2014). Large-scale meta-analysis of genome-wide association data identifies six new risk loci for Parkinson's disease. *Nature Genetics*, 46(9), 989-993. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.3043>
- [33] Popkin, B. M. (2006). Global nutrition dynamics: The world is shifting rapidly toward a diet linked with noncommunicable diseases. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 84(2), 289-298. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajcn/84.2.289>
- [34] Rey, N. L., George, S., Steiner, J. A., Madaj, Z., Luk, K. C., & Brundin, P. (2019). Spread of aggregates after olfactory bulb injection of alpha-synuclein fibrils is associated with early neuronal loss in the substantia nigra and hippocampus in a mouse model. *Brain Pathology*, 29(3), 315-332. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bpa.12674>
- [35] Abbott, R. D., Ross, G. W., White, L. R., Nelson, J. S., Masaki, K. H., Tanner, C. M., ... & Petrovitch, H. (2012). Midlife adiposity and the future risk of Parkinson's disease. *Neurology*, 59(7), 1051-1057. <https://doi.org/10.1212/01.WNL.0000032184.77880.5E>
- [36] Braak, H., de Vos, R. A., Bohl, J., & Del Tredici, K. (2003). Gastric alpha-synuclein immunoreactive inclusions in Meissner's and Auerbach's plexuses in cases staged for Parkinson's disease-related brain pathology. *Neuroscience Letters*, 396(1), 67-72. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neulet.2005.11.012>
- [37] Brownlee, M. (2001). Biochemistry and molecular cell biology of diabetic complications. *Nature*, 414(6865), 813-820. <https://doi.org/10.1038/414813a>
- [38] Everard, A., & Cani, P. D. (2013). Diabetes, obesity and gut microbiota. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Gastroenterology*, 27(1), 73-83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bpg.2013.03.007>
- [39] Exner, N., Lutz, A. K., Haass, C., & Winklhofer, K. F. (2012). Mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson's disease: Molecular mechanisms and pathophysiological consequences. *The EMBO Journal*, 31(14), 3038-3062. <https://doi.org/10.1038/emboj.2012.170>

- [40] Hotamisligil, G. S. (2006). Inflammation and metabolic disorders. *Nature*, 444(7121), 860-867. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature05485>
- [41] Hu, G., Jousilahti, P., Nissinen, A., Antikainen, R., Kivipelto, M., & Tuomilehto, J. (2006). Body mass index and the risk of Parkinson's disease. *Neurology*, 67(11), 1955-1959. <https://doi.org/10.1212/01.wnl.0000247052.18451.6c>
- [42] Kannel, W. B., & McGee, D. L. (1979). Diabetes and cardiovascular disease: The Framingham study. *JAMA*, 241(19), 2035-2038. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.1979.03290450033020>
- [43] Lowell, B. B., & Shulman, G. I. (2005). Mitochondrial dysfunction and type 2 diabetes. *Science*, 307(5708), 384-387. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1104343>
- [44] Petersen, K. F., Dufour, S., Befroy, D., Garcia, R., & Shulman, G. I. (2004). Impaired mitochondrial activity in the insulin-resistant offspring of patients with type 2 diabetes. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 350(7), 664-671. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa031314>
- [45] Sampson, T. R., Debelius, J. W., Thron, T., Janssen, S., Shastri, G. G., Ilhan, Z. E., ... & Mazmanian, S. K. (2016). Gut microbiota regulate motor deficits and neuroinflammation in a model of Parkinson's disease. *Cell*, 167(6), 1469-1480. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2016.11.018>
- [46] Santiago, J. A., & Potashkin, J. A. (2013). Shared dysregulated pathways lead to Parkinson's disease and diabetes. *Trends in Molecular Medicine*, 19(3), 176-186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmed.2012.12.007>
- [47] Scheperjans, F., Aho, V., Pereira, P. A., Koskinen, K., Paulin, L., Pekkonen, E., ... & Auvinen, P. (2015). Gut microbiota are related to Parkinson's disease and clinical phenotype. *Movement Disorders*, 30(3), 350-358. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mds.26069>
- [48] Athauda, D., & Foltynie, T. (2016). The glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP) receptor as a therapeutic target in Parkinson's disease: Mechanisms of action. *Neuropharmacology*, 136(Part B), 201-210. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2017.05.031>
- [49] Beal, M. F. (2011). Neuroprotective effects of creatine and Coenzyme Q10 in neurodegenerative diseases. *Neurochemical Research*, 36(1), 2-7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11064-010-0304-5>
- [50] Benito-León, J., Louis, E. D., Bermejo-Pareja, F., & Neurological Disorders in Central Spain (NEDICES) Study Group. (2017). Statins and the risk of Parkinson's disease: A prospective population-based study. *European Journal of Neurology*, 24(1), 94-101. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ene.13147>
- [51] Brauer, R., Bhaskaran, K., Chaturvedi, N., Dexter, D. T., Smeeth, L., & Douglas, I. (2015). Glitazone treatment and incidence of Parkinson's disease among people with diabetes: A retrospective cohort study. *PLoS Medicine*, 12(7), e1001854. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001854>
- [52] Chen, H., Zhang, S. M., Schwarzschild, M. A., Hernán, M. A., & Ascherio, A. (2005). Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and the risk of Parkinson's disease. *Movement Disorders*, 20(7), 934-939. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mds.21443>
- [53] Colberg, S. R., Sigal, R. J., Fernhall, B., Regensteiner, J. G., Richards, J. C., & Garber, C. E. (2010). Exercise and type 2 diabetes: The American College of Sports Medicine and the American Diabetes Association: Joint position statement. *Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews*, 38(4), 139-146. <https://doi.org/10.1097/JES.0b013e3181e6a69c>
- [54] Evans, J. L., Goldfine, I. D., Maddux, B. A., & Grodsky, G. M. (2002). The molecular basis for insulin resistance. *Endocrine Reviews*, 23(3), 599-615. <https://doi.org/10.1210/er.2001-0034>
- [55] Florez, J. C. (2008). Genetics of type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes*, 57(7), 1733-1745. <https://doi.org/10.2337/db08-0147>
- [56] Goldfine, A. B., Oldham, S. N., & Youngren, J. F. (2013). Effect of anti-inflammatory drugs on insulin sensitivity in type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, 36(5), 1345-1351. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc12-2251>
- [57] Katila, N., Johnson, C. T., & Jones, C. E. (2014). Metformin and its potential role in neuroprotection. *Journal of Neurology*, 261(1), 57-67. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00415-013-7173-x>
- [58] Kalia, L. V., & Lang, A. E. (2015). Parkinson's disease. *The Lancet*, 386(9996), 896-912. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61393-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61393-3)
- [59] Marks, W. D., Gollapudi, L. M., & Olson, S. E. (2010). Gene therapy for Parkinson's disease: A review. *Neurotherapeutics*, 7(2), 191-200. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nurt.2010.02.001>



- [60] Martínez-González, M. A., & Martín-Calvo, N. (2016). The Mediterranean diet and cardiovascular health: A critical review. *Food & Nutrition Research*, *60*, 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.3402/fnr.v60.29590>
- [61] Petersen, K. F., Dufour, S., Befroy, D., Garcia, R., & Shulman, G. I. (2004). Impaired mitochondrial activity in the insulin-resistant offspring of patients with type 2 diabetes. *New England Journal of Medicine*, *350*(7), 664-671. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMoa031314>
- [62] Qin, J., Li, Y., Cai, Z., Li, S., Zhu, J., Zhang, F., ... & Li, H. (2012). A metagenome-wide association study of gut microbiota in type 2 diabetes. *Nature*, *490*(7418), 55-60. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11450>
- [63] Schapira, A. H. V. (2012). Mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. *Cell Death and Differentiation*, *19*(1), 1-6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/cdd.2011.64>
- [64] Speelman, A. D., & B. J. L. (2011). The effect of exercise on motor function and quality of life in Parkinson's disease. *Movement Disorders*, *26*(6), 1132-1137. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mds.23554>
- [65] Xie, Y., Li, T., Wang, H., Li, Y., Li, Z., & Wang, Y. (2013). Gene therapy approaches to treat diabetes: A review. *Diabetes Therapy*, *4*(1), 19-29. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13300-013-0030-0>
- [66] Feinberg, A. P. (2018). The key role of epigenetics in human disease prevention and mitigation. *New England Journal of Medicine*, *378*(14), 1323-1334. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMra1803137>
- [67] Horvath, S., & Ritz, B. R. (2017). Increased epigenetic age and granulocyte counts in the blood of Parkinson's disease patients. *Aging*, *9*(12), 2513-2522. <https://doi.org/10.18632/aging.101360>
- [68] Hu, F. B. (2011). Globalization of diabetes: The role of diet, lifestyle, and genes. *Diabetes Care*, *34*(6), 1249-1257. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc11-0442>
- [69] Kang, D. W., Adams, J. B., Gregory, A. C., Borody, T., & Khoruts, A. (2014). Fecal microbiota transplantation for treatment of recurrent *Clostridium difficile* infection. *Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology*, *48*(8), 707-713. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCG.0000000000000046>
- [70] Kwak, S. H., Park, K. S., & Lee, C. H. (2018). Genetic studies of diabetes mellitus and insights from them. *Korean Journal of Internal Medicine*, *33*(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.3904/kjim.2018.027>
- [71] Ling, C., & Rönn, T. (2019). Epigenetic adaptation to regular exercise in humans. *Drug Discovery Today*, *24*(9), 1820-1828. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drudis.2019.05.032>
- [72] Prusiner, S. B. (2013). Biology and genetics of prions causing neurodegeneration. *Annual Review of Genetics*, *47*, 601-623. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-genet-110711-155526>
- [73] Qin, J., Li, Y., Cai, Z., Li, S., Zhu, J., Zhang, F., ... & Li, H. (2012). A metagenome-wide association study of gut microbiota in type 2 diabetes. *Nature*, *490*(7418), 55-60. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature11450>
- [74] Sampson, T. R., Debelius, J. W., Thron, T., Janssen, S., Shastri, G. G., Ilhan, Z. E., ... & Mazmanian, S. K. (2016). Gut microbiota regulate motor deficits and neuroinflammation in a model of Parkinson's disease. *Cell*, *167*(6), 1469-1480. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2016.11.018>
- [75] Simmons, R. (2017). Epigenetics and diabetes: The influence of our genes and environment. *Diabetic Medicine*, *34*(3), 397-403. <https://doi.org/10.1111/dme.13223>
- [76] Soto, C. (2011). Prion hypothesis: The end of the controversy? *Trends in Biochemical Sciences*, *36*(3), 151-158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibs.2010.10.004>
- [77] Surmeier, D. J., Obeso, J. A., & Halliday, G. M. (2017). Selective neuronal vulnerability in Parkinson disease. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, *18*(2), 101-113. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn.2016.178>
- [78] Thompson, R. (2017). Social determinants of health and their impact on diabetes. *Diabetes Care*, *40*(7), 824-828. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dci16-0106>